CS2030S Final

AY24/25 sem 2

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First Half

- 1. Information Hiding:
 - \bullet $\mbox{\it fields}$ should be declared as $\mbox{\it private}$
 - methods should be declared as public
- final: final in a method declaration prevents overriding.
- 3. Heap and Stack
 - Stack: Stack contains stack frames, which are created whenever a method is called. It contains (From bottom to up)
 - the this reference (If instance method is called)
 - the method arguments
 - · local variables within the method.
 - Heap: Contains the following (From up to bottom):
 - Class name. (If a lambda expression, then write the expression)
 - · Instance fields and respective fields.
 - Captured values. (Separated by dashed lines)
- 4. Override vs. Overload
 - Override: must have same method descriptor (method signature + method return type), e.g.A
 C::foo(B1,B2), (B1, B2 are the type of the method parameters, same for as follows)
 - Overload: must have same method name, in the same class and different method signature (method name, number of parameters, type of each parameter, order of the parameters). e.g.
 C::foo(B1,B2). The return type of the method doesn't matter.
- Tell, Don't Ask: We never ask an object to spit out its own raw data. Instead, we let the object know what we want so that it can give us a piece of processed data (via an instance method).
 - Sample reasoning: The subclass should ask the super class to do the thing (to be changed).
- Liskov Substitution Principle: A subclass should not break the expectations / specifications set by the superclass. Tips:
 - Always write down what the specifications are set by the superclass.
 - Construct a method and test whether the subclass can be substituted without breaking the specifications. (If class B extends A, and overrides the method in A, then successful substitution means when substitute A with B, we should call the overridden function in B!)
- Method Invocation: Pay attention to the CTT, RTT of the target and the CTT of the parameter. The RTT of the parameter doesn't matter!
 - During the compile time, find the most specific method descriptor starting from the CTT of the target. (Method M is more specific than method N means that the type of the parameter of M is the subtype of the type of the parameter in N).
 - During the run time, use the method descriptor we got from above to find the first method from the RTT to

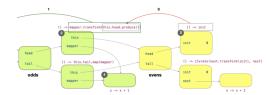
- Object and execute it.
- Type casting happens during the compile tile! e.g. (Circle) o2;, the CTT of the method parameter is Circle even if o2 might be an Object.
- Variance Relationship: Let S denote the type of element in the "array". Then the complex type have three possible variance relationship:
 - Covariant: if S <: T, then C(S) <: C(T).
 - Contravariant: if S <: T, then C(T) <: C(S)
 - Invariant: it is neither covariant nor contravariant.
 e.g. Java Generics, if S <: T, A<S> ≮: A<T>.
- Wrapper Class: Integer ≮: Double. Note that int[] ≮: double[].
- 10. Type erasure
 - Replace generic type with its raw type.
 - Replace type parameters.
 - Non-bounded type parameters are replaced with Object
 - Bounded type parameters are replaced with the first bound and explicitly cast to the second bound.
 - Insert necessary cast (Usually narrowing conversion) to make sure casting to the expected type.
 - Example: this code <U extends Container> void check(U con) {} will become void check(Container con) {} after type erasure.
- 11. Type inference
 - · Rule to find constraints
 - Target: "the return type of the method" <: "the type of the variable you are assigning to"
 - Argument: "the type of the argument" <: "the type of the parameter"
 - Bound: we need to consider "the bound of the generic type parameters"
 - · Rules to solve constraints
 - Type1<: T<: Type2, then T is inferred as Type1
 - Type1<: T, then T is inferred as Type1
 - T<: Type2, then T is inferred as Type2
 - Type inference involves wildcard
 - If parameter type is Seq<? super T>, argument type is Seq<G>, then T<: G
 - If parameter type is Seq<? extends T>, argument type is Seq<G>, then G<:T
 - If class A implements Comparable<A>, and class B extends A, then B actually implements Comparable<A> not Comparable!
- PECS: This rule is regard to method parameter, not the method.
- 13. **Tips**
 - If you pass an integer 3 to a parameter of type Double, the code won't compile! No auto-boxing is done here!
 - Subset thinking for wildcard: ? extends T is a set of type X where $\{X:X<:T\}$. Similar for the other.
 - EAT thinking in PECS: Use X,Y to represent the range for the parameters, T,U for the original type of parameter. Then draw a set notation to decide when X,Y is most flexible!
 - Unbounded wildcard: List<?> 1; Object o = 1.get(0);, can only assign to Object!
 - Subtype reasoning: Think about whether the subtype can substitute the supertype successfully.

 Generics: Generics can enforce compile-time type safety.

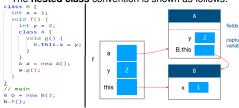
Nested Class

- Inner Class: Suppose A is the containing class, B is the inner class
 - Instantiate the inner class: A.B b = a.new B();
 - Access instance field x in A from B: A. this.x=1 this
 is called qualified this.
 - If inner class B is private, A.B is not allowed! Calling the method inside B is also not allowed! (Apply to static nested class also!)
- 2. Static nested Class: Same suppose as inner class
 - Instantiate the inner class: A.B b = new A.B(); or B b = new B();
 - Access instance field x in A from B: Need an instance of A, like A a = new A(); first, then inside the static nested class, can use this.y = a.x + 1; (y is an instance field in B)
 - this keyword: this is allowed in the static nested class as long as it is used in a non-static method.
- 3. Anonymous class:
 - An anonymous class can only extend one class or implement one interface.
- 4. Variable Capture
 - The local variables (arguments and normal local variables) of the method where the local class comes from (including all the arguments/variables that the lambda uses). The member/field of the local class (ownself's) is not captured!
 - The instance that invokes the method where the local class comes from. No members of that instance. No effective final rule on the instance. Update of the member is synced!
 - Think of Lambda expression as an anonymous class or local class, but it has some restrictions on the variables that they can use
 - Instance or Static Variables (from enclosing class): Freely use, no restriction, but actually capture the instance.
 - Local Variables (the enclosing method): Must be effectively final
 - · Parameters of Lambda: Freely used
 - Shadowing: use its own lambda parameter instead of the captured variable from enclosing method.
- Effectively Final: An implicitly final variable cannot be re-assigned after they are captured, but can be read.
- Aliasing: Key is to judge is whether two references share the same address.
- Factory method: Must be static. Otherwise, no way to instantiate an instance.
- 8. Varargs . . .: Used for passing in an array of items (or same type) to a method.
- 9. Stack and Heap

InfiniteList<Integer> evens = InfiniteList.iterate(0, x -> x + 2);
InfiniteList<Integer> odds = evens.map(x -> x + 1);
InfiniteList<Integer> altEvens = odds.map(x -> x * 2);
altEvens.head();



The **nested class** convention is shown as follows:



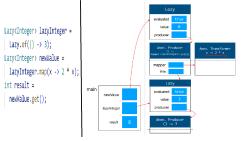
Functional Programming

- 1. Pure Functions
 - No side effects: No 1) print to the screen, 2) write to files, 3) throw exceptions, 4) change other variables, 5) modify the values of the arguments
 - Deterministic: Given the same input (can have no input), the function must produce the same output.
- 2. Functional Interface
 - (BooleanCondition<T>):
 - Lambda example:
 BooleanCondition<Integer> isPositive = x
 -> x > 0:
 - Java equivalent: Predicate<T>.
 - (Producer<T>):
 - Lambda example: Producer<Double> randomValue = () -> Math.random();
 - Java equivalent: Supplier<T>.
 - (Consumer<T>):
 - Lambda example: Consumer<String>
 printUpperCase = s ->
 System.out.println(s.toUpperCase());
 - Java equivalent: Consumer<T>
 - (Transformer<U, T>): Tranform a value of type U into a value of type T.
 - Lambda example: Transfomer<String,
 Integer> stringLength = s -> s.length();
 Java equivalent: Function<U,T>
 - (Combiner<S, T, R>): Combine two values of type S. T into a value of type S.
 - Lambda example: Combiner<Integer,
 Integer, Integer> multiply = (a, b) -> a
 * h.
 - Java equivalent: BiFunction<S, T, R>.
 - Tips
 - A functional interface must have exactly one abstract method, it can have any number of helpers (constants, static/default methods). It can extend from another class, but if the parent class has multiple abstract method, then the interface is no longer a functional interface.
 - All the fields in an interface are public static final (constant) by default.
- 3. Method Referencing

- Steps to solve compile or not question
 - Determine the number of inputs according to the functional interface's abstract method (match with the number of parameters in this method), then your lambda will be like (x, y, ...) -> ..., the L.H.S is the number of inputs
 - Use the rule to rewrite the normal lambda to see if
 1) number of parameters matches 2) type matches (can find methods)
- Tips: In A::foo, if foo is an instance method, it will use the first input as the instance, and pass the remaining inputs as arguments. Otherwise, it will call the class method and pass all inputs as arguments.

 Box::of // x -> Box.of(x)

- 4. Curried Functions: 1) Treat it as passing several parameters 2) treat it as a function that returns another function! e.g. f -> x -> (f.apply(x + 0.01) f.apply(x)) / 0.01;.
- Lambda Stack and Heap: Notice that the local variables in main method will be captured!



Stream

- reduce(): Workflow is result = identity → for each element in the stream; result = accumulator.apply(result, element); return result
 - reduce(identity, accumulator): the identity and element in the stream must be of the same type!
 - reduce(identity, accumulator, combiner): the identity may not be the same type as the element in the stream. To use this safely and compatibly, must follow the three rules
 - identity Rule: combiner.apply(identity, i)
 == i
 - Associativity Rule: (x * y) * z == x * (y * z) (Both accumulator and combiner should adhere to this rule)
 - Compatibility Rule: combiner.apply(u, accumulator.apply(identity, t)) == accumulator.apply(u, t)
- map(): produce a new stream of the transformed elements with a one-to-one relationship.
- flatMap(): transforms each element into a stream and then flattens all resulting streams into a single stream, useful for working with nested collections or when one element should produce multiple output elements.

- filter(): Creates a new stream that keeps only the elements that passed the test in Predicate.
- none/any/allMatch(): a boolean method. It returns true only if no/any/all element in the stream passes the predicate test.
- 6. **sorted()**: elements according to **natural order** (small to big or ascending order) or a **provided comparator**
- 7. Tips
 - Times evaluted by calling get(n)

| generate | iterate | map | flatMap |
|----------|---------|-----|---------|
| 1 | n | 1 | 1 |

- sorted() and distinct() are stateful, so should only be called on finite streams. Otherwise, enter infinite loop.
- InfiniteList: always use head() and tail()
 - head(): return the first non-filtered element of the List.
 - tail(): return the remaining list, excluding the filtered-out elements.

Monad and Functors

- Monad: A class that can be created using of and chained using flatMap. And follows the three Monad Laws
- 2. Monad Laws: These laws are used on part of your lambda expression
 - The Left Identity Law: Monad.of(x).flatMap(x -> f(x)) = f(x). (The output of f(x) is by default a monad).
 - The Right Identity Law: monad.flatMap(x -> Monad.of(x)) ≡ monad.
 - The Associative Law: monad.flatMap(x ->
 f(x)).flatMap(x -> g(x)) ≡ monad.flatMap(x
 -> f(x).flatMap(y -> g(y)))
- Functor: A class that has a map method and follows the two Functor Laws
- 4. Functor Laws
 - Identity Law: functor.map(x -> x) \equiv functor.
 - Composition Law: functor.map(x -> f(x)).map(x -> g(x)) ≡ functor.map(x -> g(f(x)).
- 5. Tips
 - A class/type can be **both** monad and functor!
 - Every Monad is a Functor, but not every Functor is a Monad.
 - Trace through the program step by step to see if the certain class/type logic follows the three Monad Laws anot.
 - When using whatever monad/functor law, find the part of the expression that you are using that law, and replace it with the output of that law.
 - To find the ultimate proof, try comparing what you want with what you have now. And then slowly slowly prove it.

Parallel Stream

- Creation: 1) call .parallel() on a stream or 2) call .parallelStream() on a collection.
- After Creation: The original stream is divided into several substreams or threads to run concurrently.

- When can stream be parallelized: The stream should not have
 - · an operation with a side effect
 - an operation that interferes with the stream data source.
 - an operation that is stateful, meaning depending on elements processed before, e.g. sorted(), distinct(), limit()

4. Tips

- All parallel programs are concurrent, but not all concurrent programs are parallel.
- Having multiple cores/processors is a prerequisite to running a program in parallel.

Threads and CompletableFuture

- 1. Threads
 - · Decide which Thread you are in
 - Find the position of the method call: Thread.(whatever)
 - If it is inside a lambda or Runnable which is passed to new Thread(...), you're in that new thread.
 - If you're outside the new Thread(...), e.g. in the main method, you're usually in the main thread.
 - Pause a thread: Done by calling Thread.sleep(ms), it will pause the thread you're in (Use the method above to find out) for ms seconds.
- 2. CompletableFuture
 - · Rule of thumb
 - CF(f).then(g) means: start g only after f has been completed.
 - * Examples: thenRun, thenCombine combine, thenApply map, thenCompose flatMap, etc.
 - static CF.async(g) means: start g on a new thread
 - Examples: supplyAsync, runAsync, etc.
 - CF(f).then...async(g) means: start g only after f has been completed, but use a new thread.
 - Examples: thenRunAsync, thenApplyAsync, etc.

Difference between run and supply: run executes a **void function** while supply executes a **function** with a return value.

- Creation: 1) completedFuture(value), 2) runAsync(Runnable), supplyAsync(Supplier)
 3) Rely on other CompletableFutures, use cf = anyOf(cfs)/allOf(cfs), which means the target cf will complete when any/all of the cfs complete.
- Get the result: 1) get(), will throw checked exceptions that must be handled 2) join(), will not and is usually preferred. These two methods are synchronous calls, will block the main thread until the cf finishes.
- When is CompletableFuture complete
 - For CompletableFuture<T> cf:
 - * cf =
 CompletableFuture.supplyAsync(s):
 complete after s.get()

- * cf = CompletableFuture.runAsync(r):
 complete after r.run()
- Applies regardless of nested CompletableFutures in s/r
- For CompletableFuture<...> cf =
 CompletableFuture.completedFuture(f):
 - * complete immediately after creation

3. **Tips**

- $\bullet \ {\tt System.out.println} \ is \ a \ {\tt synchronous} \ {\tt method} \ {\tt call!}$
- Thread: There is no sequence of which thread will be executed first. So, be always careful, there may be lots of possibilities!
- CompletableFuture: If no .join() or .get() is called after the CompletableFuture, the output may have many possibilities, a.k.a non-determinstic output.
- CompletableFuture: Possible output with anyOf() is a bit tricky, fully utilize your exhaustive thinking.

Fork and Join

- 1. Working Principles
 - · Each thread has a deque of tasks.
 - When a thread is idle, it checks its deque of tasks.
 - If the deque is not empty, it picks up a task at the head of the deque to execute (e.g., invoke its compute() method).
 - Otherwise, if the deque is empty, it picks up a task from the tail of the deque of another thread to run.
 This is a mechanism called work stealing.
 - When fork() is called, the caller (target) adds itself to the *head* of the deque of the executing thread. This is done so that the most recently forked task gets executed next, similar to how normal recursive calls.
 - executed next, similar to how normal recursive calls.When join() is called, several cases might happen.
 - If the subtask (target, same for the follow) to be joined hasn't been executed, this subtask will be popped out first, and then its compute() method is called and the subtask is executed.
 - If the subtask to be joined has been completed (some other thread has stolen this and completed it), then the result is read, and join() returns.
 - If the subtask to be joined has been stolen and is being executed by another thread, then the current thread either finds some other tasks to work on from its local deque, or steals another task from another deque.

2. Tips

 The fork(), compute(), join() order should form a palindrome and there should be no crossing.

- task.compute() is just a normal method call, this target task won't be added to the current worker's task dequeue
- When dealing with work stealing problem, always write down the content of the worker to-be-stolen's task dequeue, and its task at the tail will be stolen!